DEFENSE EQUAL OPPORTUNITY MANAGEMENT INSTITUTE

DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH

RECENT DIVERSITY RESEARCH AT THE DEFENSE EQUAL OPPORTUNITY MANAGEMENT INSTITUTE (DEOMI): 1992-1996

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Abstract

This report presents three major recent research streams occurring at the Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute (DEOMI). The first involves equal opportunity climate research, which covers the development, use, and organizational correlates of the Military Equal Opportunity Climate Survey (MEOCS) and its variations. The second covers intercultural training research, which focuses on internal and external evaluations of DEOMI's equal opportunity training programs. The third entails research in military discipline: models of causative factors and the military justice process; and research on disparate discipline rates for African-Americans and Whites, sources of disparity, and possible solutions. This report ends with a discussion of future directions and implications for the military for these three areas of research.

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RECENT DIVERSITY RESEARCH AT THE DEFENSE EQUAL OPPORTUNITY MANAGEMENT INSTITUTE (DEOMI): 1992-1996

The Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute (DEOMI) began as the Defense Race Relations Institute (DRRI) with the mission of race relations education. The old DRRI evolved into DEOMI with an expanded mission of equal opportunity (EO) education for a number of groups: EO and equal employment opportunity (EEO) advisors for the various military services, military reserves, managers, senior noncommissioned officers (NCOs), and senior executives (Dansby & Landis, 1996). In addition, DEOMI maintains a Research Directorate, which examines a number of EO-related issues in the military.

In 1991, a special issue of the *International Journal of Intercultural Relations* on EO in the military (Knouse, 1991b) covered the early research of DEOMI in EO climate, sexual harassment, minority career progression, and Hispanic issues, as well as that of other service research organizations, such as the Navy Personnel Research and Development Center (NPRDC). NPRDC has since published an update on its research efforts (Edwards, Rosenfeld, Thomas, Thomas, & Newell, 1994). Along these lines, the purpose of the present report is to provide an update on recent research efforts by DEOMI. The report progresses by describing studies in several research streams: EO climate, intercultural training, and military discipline. The report ends with a discussion of future research directions indicated by the DEOMI studies.

Equal Opportunity Climate

Investigation of EO climate has been the keystone of DEOMI research. This section first examines the concept of EO climate, then describes the development and use of the Military Equal Opportunity Climate Survey (MEOCS), and finally covers several studies that have developed variations on the MEOCS and have researched correlates of EO climates.

Development and Use of the MEOCS

The MEOCS was developed in the late 1980s as a tool for measuring EO climate in the military in order to provide help for local commanders in diagnosing their EO environment. As originally formulated, the MEOCS measured EO climate as behavioral perceptions in terms of five factors: sexual harassment/discriminatory behaviors, differential command behaviors, positive command/social behaviors, overt racist/sexist behaviors, and "reverse discrimination" behaviors. In addition, the MEOCS measured several organizational outcomes that were theoretically linked to EO climate: satisfaction, work group effectiveness, and commitment, and a number of respondent demographic items (Landis, 1990; Landis, Dansby, & Faley, 1993).

As of 1996, over 3500 military units have completed the MEOCS resulting in a significant data base of nearly 500,000 respondents. Analyses show that minorities and women, enlisted, and combat units rate EO climate lower than do White males, officers, and service support units, respectively (Landis, Dansby, & Tallarigo, 1996).

In terms of application, the MEOCS is designed to be an organizational development tool for local commanders to improve the effectiveness of their units. Its use is indicated in a four-step intervention model: assess current operations with the MEOCS, plan the intervention by sharing results with the unit in order to build their commitment to the process, implement the planned actions, and finally evaluate the impact of the actions (Dansby, 1995).

MEOCS Versions

The basic MEOCS has been reformulated for a number of uses and environments. For example, a content analysis of written comments to the basic MEOCS revealed that respondents perceived certain "slants": too narrow a focus on only certain types of discrimination in certain military environments (Grosch, 1994a). Therefore, DEOMI has developed versions for higher level executives, small units, and civilian populations, and tested scales for expanding EO climate into age and disability discrimination.

Senior Leader Equal Opportunity Climate Survey. DEOMI created a Senior Leader Equal Opportunity Climate Survey (SLEOCS) to support its mission of executive EO assessment and education for generals, admirals, and Senior Executive Service (SES) civilians. Several scales were developed: fairness, helpfulness of EO, importance of EO, leader involvement in EO, climate, EO relation to mission, and support for EO. In particular, the fairness scale was identified as psychometrically sound on a sample of 346 senior leaders and could be useful in assessing the perceived fairness of organizations (McIntyre, 1995). A content analysis of open-ended questions of the SLEOCS found that EO concerns centered on promotion opportunities, downsizing, sexual harassment, gender and racial bias, and reverse discrimination (Hochhaus, 1995).

A recent study of the SLEOCS administered to over 500 generals, admirals, and SES civilians showed that senior leaders generally have a positive perception of EO in DoD organizations. Indeed, they have a more positive view of EO than do military service personnel in general. The one exception is sexual harassment where they view the problem in the same light as other service personnel. However, senior leaders who are racial-ethnic minorities and who are women have a less positive view of EO than their White male counterparts. Overall, the senior leaders see a strong relationship between effective leadership, EO, and military readiness (Dansby, 1996).
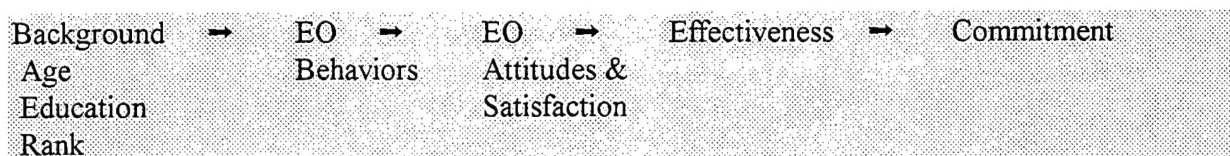
Small Unit MEOCS. In administering the standard MEOCS, small units indicated that they did not have the proportionate racial, ethnic, and gender diversity in order for behavioral incidents mentioned in the MEOCS to be able to occur. Therefore, a small unit version was formulated consisting of six factors: sexist and racist attitudes, command practices, accommodation/acceptance, attitude toward women/sexual harassment, perception of unit members' racist/sexist attitudes, and attitude toward reverse discrimination (Albright & McIntyre, 1995).

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MEOCS-EEO Civilian Version. An expanded version of the MEOCS investigated EEO - the civilian counterpart of military EO. Additional EEO scales were developed by Niebuhr (1994) on a civilian sample and included sexist behavior, age discrimination, sexual harassment, religious discrimination, and discrimination against the disabled. Organizational perception scales included organizational trust, total quality, cohesion, traditional and modern racism, and attitudes toward women. Four global factor clusters resulted from an analysis of about 9000 respondents: perceived incidents, organizational effectiveness, mixed traits, and EO/EEO attitudes (Tallarigo, 1994).

EO Climate Research

A number of DEOMI studies have used these MEOCS variations to examine relationships among EO climate and other organizational effectiveness factors.

EO Climate and Organizational Commitment. Landis, Dansby, and Faley (1994) examined 80,000 respondents in the MEOCS data base to investigate the linkages between EO climate and organizational commitment. Their basic model was:

Background	→	EO	→	EO	→	Effectiveness	→	Commitment
Age		Behaviors		Attitudes &				
Education				Satisfaction				
Rank								

They found through latent variable analysis that the EO climate variables were significant contributors to the fit of the model. The best fit was for White males, while the poorest fit was for Asian-American males and females. There were differences in commitment for various subgroups (African-American and Asian-American; male and female).

EO Climate and Total Quality Management. Knouse (1994a) identified three military units that had received recognition for their Total Quality Management (TQM) programs and had completed the MEOCS. He found that a MEOCS work group quality item correlated with work group effectiveness, commitment, satisfaction, and positive EO behaviors. In addition, EO climate was a predictor of quality for minorities and women.

Using 11,968 respondents in the MEOCS-EEO data base, Knouse (1996, forthcoming) found that the total quality (TQ) scale (items on customer orientation, continuous quality improvement, and work group empowerment) correlated with work group effectiveness, leader cohesion, job satisfaction, group cohesion, organizational trust, and overall EEO climate. In addition, diversity measures (reported percentages of women, minorities, disabled, and over age 40 in work groups) showed relations to the TQ scale with an apparently optimal level of diversity being 11-30% in work groups.

3

Acceptance of Diversity Climate and Group Effectiveness. Niebuhr, Knouse, and Dansby (1994) used a MEOCS military sample (n=1128) and a modified MEOCS on a state government civilian sample (n=330) to investigate the relationships between discriminatory climates of racism and sexism and group effectiveness. Results showed that perceived racism and sexism correlated negatively with group cohesiveness and performance.

Representation Index and EO Climate. Dansby and Landis (1995) explored representation indices (proportions of the total unit represented by various diversity groups) in 131 Army organizations. They found that minority women have the least favorable perceptions of EO climate, but these perceptions improve as their representational proportion in the unit increases.

Organizational Distance. Tallarigo and Landis (1995) used multidimensional scaling on 955 military units to explore EO climate at various organizational levels. Results showed that organizational mission, size, and internal demographics best predicted EO climate. In particular, three dimensions fell out: larger organizations with combat roles, organizations with high proportions of minorities, and smaller organizations that were largely White.

Summary

DEOMI has developed a multidimensional measure of EO climate that includes measures of organizational effectiveness as well as individual demographics. Through several years of administration, they have accumulated a huge military data base available for research. In-house studies have examined a number of diversity and organizational effectiveness correlates of EO climate. In addition, DEOMI has formulated new versions of the MEOCS to meet increasing as well as diverse customer demand. The last section of this paper outlines a number of future directions for research and practice: expanding measures of diversity and EO, more objective measures of organizational effectiveness, and examining the effect of organizational factors, such as leadership.

Intercultural Training

DEOMI Training

EO training is the mainstay of DEOMI's mission. Five principles guide its training philosophy: (1) the focus is on behavioral change and compliance with policy, (2) intercultural understanding is a basic issue in military readiness, (3) EO is the unit commander's responsibility and the DEOMI graduate's duty is to advise the commander, (4) education and training can produce the desired behavioral changes, and (5) affirmative action plans can ensure equity and diversity (Dansby & Landis, 1996).

DEOMI currently delivers a number of training courses (Dansby & Landis, 1996):

EO Staff Advisor Course. This is the foundation course, lasting 16 weeks and designed to train EO staff advisors assigned to commanders of all the military services. It consists of cultural factors, unit cohesion, communication skills, staff advisor skills, leadership, and specific needs of the particular services. Its objectives are intrapersonal awareness, interpersonal understanding, and organizational skills.

Reserve Components Course. This is a variation on the foundation course designed to be compatible with reserve training. There are two, two-week components done at DEOMI and a correspondence phase.

EO Program Orientation for Managers. The course covers a two-week orientation to prejudice and discrimination, program management, and the various military services' policies. The target audience is senior NCOs (E7 to E9) and middle level to senior officers (O3 to O6).

EEO Courses. Since 1994, DEOMI has added training for civilian employees of the military services. There are three primary courses, each two weeks long, covering topics in EEO advising and management: complaint processing, EEO law, communication and counseling skills, and dispute resolution.

Senior Enlisted EO Workshop. This is a one-week orientation to EO for senior NCOs (first sergeants, sergeant majors, and master chiefs).

Senior Executive Leaders EO Training. Since 1994 DEOMI has also trained newly selected admirals, generals, and Senior Executive Service (SES) civilians on EO issues through a two-day workshop.

Mobile Training Teams. DEOMI has the capability of sending mobile training teams to assist specific organizations with particular EO problems. Since 1990, the requests for these teams have increased dramatically.

Intercultural Training Research

Johnson (1995) evaluated the effectiveness of DEOMI training through a two-component model: local effects (evaluating trainee mastering content) and field effects (evaluating impact back at the home unit). For trainee mastery of EO content, she evaluated two 1995 DEOMI classes using a pre-test and post-test. She found an average improvement of 18%.

For evaluating impact in the field, she employed two data bases: SLEOCS scales completed by graduates of DEOMI's Senior Leader EO Seminar (n=346) and commanders' field evaluations of 1994 (n=20) and 1995 DEOMI graduates (n=71). She found that the SLEOCS showed senior executives to be generally satisfied with EO personnel's training and their role in mission effectiveness, leadership, and personal preparation. In addition, she found that the commanders evaluated staff advisors' functions, complaint processing, EO assessment, communication, and overall satisfaction with training as quite positive.

Summary

Similar to many organizations, DEOMI has focused on implementation of training somewhat to the detriment of evaluation of the effectiveness of that training (Goldstein, 1996). Johnson's local-global impact dichotomy of training effectiveness nicely parallels the proximal-distal dimension underlying Kirkpatrick's (1976) four factor model of training evaluation beginning with proximal reactions to training, and proceeding to learning of trainees, change in trainee behavior back on the job, and finally the distal impact on organizational results. Recommendations for evaluating training in terms of the local-global impact model occur in the future directions section of this article.

Military Discipline

A concern of many is the number of African-Americans in the military justice system. About half of the inmates in military prisons are African-American, which is comparable to the percentage in civilian prisons (Landis & Tallarigo, 1996). Considering that African-Americans represent about 20% of the military and only 12% of the civilian population, on a per capita basis African-Americans are much less likely to be in military prisons than in civilian prisons. On the other hand, their representation in military prisons is still out of proportion to their numbers in the military services (i.e., they are overrepresented). Moreover, they are overrepresented in other forms of military discipline as well (Landis & Dansby, 1994). In order to set the stage for the presentation of DEOMI studies of military discipline, the military justice system is first outlined.

Operation of the Military Justice System

The Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ) covers the military justice system. While paralleling the civilian justice system in some aspects, it differs in others. For example, an infraction of the rules may result in four possible consequences successively increasing in severity: no action by the local commander; an administrative action by the commander (restrictions imposed on the individual); a nonjudicial punishment (NJP) or Article 15 (from that section of the UCMJ), such as reduction in rank, fine, restriction to base, and extra duties; or a formal court-martial (military trial with a formal investigation, hearing, and legal counsel) (Walker, 1992; Landis & Tallarigo, 1996). Supposedly, the severity of the infraction dictates the severity of the disciplinary action, but the local commander and the accused have some degree of discretion over which course is taken.

Landis and Dansby (1994) describe a four-step model of the military justice system: military police investigation of an incident; command disposition of the resulting report of the incident, including dropping the incident, local resolution, or passing it through the system; military court-martial of the offense including arraignment, plea bargaining, trial, sentencing if found guilty, and appeal; and corrections including discharge, prison, parole, and clemency. There are obviously a number of points in the system where discretionary action or even bias can enter, such as the initial investigation, the local commander's decision, plea bargaining, and the military judges' decisions in trial and appeal.

Factors in UCMJ Research

A 1992 conference on the UCMJ at DEOMI (Dansby, 1992) resulted in a comprehensive seven component model of factors to consider in UCMJ research: antecedents to behavior including psychological (personality and attitudes), sociological (family, socioeconomic background, prior involvement with the law, education), and physiological (biochemistry); offense behaviors (severity); punishment recipient (background characteristics, such as race, age, rank, length of service); decision process (types of offense, type of resolution); moderators of the decision process (victim characteristics, complainant characteristics, and decision maker characteristics); punishment rates (comparison groups, such as Black versus White, and unit level); and differential rates (time frame, magnitude, type of data).

Based upon these various models of the offense resolution process, the UCMJ, and offender characteristics, DEOMI has conducted a number of studies on disparities affecting African-Americans in the military criminal justice system.

Discipline Research

Discipline Rates. Walker (1992) examined annual discipline data sent by the services to the Secretary of Defense from 1987 to 1991. Overall, discipline rates were declining, although African-American rates were remaining steady. They were overrepresented in courts-martial and to a lesser extent in NJPs. There were, however, large variations in rates over service and time. Walker concluded that the underlying factor was the nature of the offense. African- Americans were involved in more serious crimes (violent and confrontational offenses), while Whites were more apt to be involved with crimes against property and offenses to military rules.

Knouse (1993) examined a sample of 51 African-American and 51 White inmates at the Fort Leavenworth military prison. Similar to the Walker study, he found that African-Americans were more likely to have committed crimes of violence (murder, rape, assault, robbery), while Whites were more often involved with sex crimes.

Landis, Hoyle, and Dansby (1996) looked at 5989 Army court martial cases between 1987 and 1995. African-Americans were overrepresented in assault, sex-related crimes, and some drug crimes.

Landis and Tallarigo (1996) investigated 3300 Article 15 incidents from three Army posts for 1994. They found that African-Americans were overrepresented in numbers of Article 15, but underrepresented in severity of punishment. In addition, African-Americans were older and of higher rank than Whites when receiving Article 15s. African-American offenses centered on crimes against persons, property, and confrontations with authority.

Potential Sources of the Problem. Given that DEOMI studies and other research strongly document that African-Americans are more likely to receive discipline in the military justice system, what are the possible sources of the problem? A number of DEOMI studies have addressed this difficult and complex area.

In the Leavenworth study, Knouse (1993) found a number of factors in the background data of the inmates. African-American inmates had lower ability test scores placing them in lower status and thus possibly more frustrating military jobs, came from larger families where the parents lived apart, had prior military discipline problems, and had less time in military service at the time of the offense. He concluded that the early experiences of African-Americans in the military may be crucial in terms of whether they are socialized successfully into the military or become involved in the discipline system.

Landis and Dansby (1994) reviewed the literature on military justice and proposed a number of theoretical sources for the disparity in discipline rates: social categorization theory (African-Americans as a minority in most units are viewed as an "outgroup" by the majority who are more likely to magnify negative characteristics), blocked opportunity (frustration arises when African-American expectations of success in the military do not materialize), and economic or rational choice (some African-Americans find themselves in situations where they perceive that crime may profit them).

In addition, Landis and Dansby suggest a number of factors in the military justice system that may have an influence. Some African-Americans may have a different communication style than Whites (confrontational, "tell it like it is") that may be perceived by Whites as too aggressive. There may be a difficult adjustment to the military by those African-Americans who experience a great disparity between their prior civilian life and norms and the culture of the military. Whites may understand the military justice system better than African-Americans, and therefore are able to work it more directly to their favor (convince military police and local commanders to be more lenient to their cases, use plea bargaining and "cop a plea" in the military court).

In the Landis, Hoyle, and Dansby (1996) study of Army courts-martial, African-Americans were older, had longer service time, and took longer time to traverse the criminal justice process than Whites. The authors conclude as in the previous study that African-Americans may be less familiar with the military justice system and are not using it to their advantage as well as are Whites.

In the Landis and Tallarigo (1996) study of Army Article 15 incidents, they found that African-Americans who received NJPs were older, had longer service time, and higher rank than Whites. They offer an explanation of increasingly narrow acceptable behavior over time, where African-Americans are allowed less freedom to deviate from acceptable behavior as they rise in rank. This norm may be enforced by both White and Black NCOs and officers in positions of authority. In essence, African-American NCOs may be held to a higher standard than Whites.

Possible Solutions. Several DEOMI researchers have suggested a socialization inoculator (Dansby, 1992; Knouse, 1993, 1994b; Knouse & Dansby, 1994; Landis & Dansby, 1994). The idea is prefaced on the assumption that some African-Americans may encounter difficulty when they first enter the Service, because what was acceptable interpersonal behavior in their past civilian life is not acceptable in the more narrow social confines of the military. For example,

confrontational "in your face" behavior might have been effective for dealing with interpersonal problems in the civilian world but may lead to a discipline problem in the military.

The socialization inoculator is a training device that "inoculates" new recruits by exposing them to hypothetical interpersonal incidences and showing them the appropriate response (socially acceptable to the military) - similar to a medical inoculation where exposure to a weak version of the illness protects the individual from later contagion from the full-blown illness. Later when these military newcomers encounter actual situations, they are better prepared to deal with these problems within the acceptable limits of the military. The socialization inoculator may be in the form of videos or even CD-ROM interactive computer programs. Moreover, training for those who supervise African-Americans in the military has been suggested as a concurrent strategy for use with the socialization inoculator (Dansby, 1992).

Whereas the socialization inoculator is focused on the recruit, a similar training device, the intercultural sensitizer, is directed at authority figures, such as supervisors (Cushner & Landis, 1996). With the sensitizer, the supervisor works through a series of questions on interpersonal incidents, which then should heighten his or her awareness of racial and ethnic differences. The idea is that if supervisors better understand the culture and values of different types of individuals, they will be less likely to misinterpret their behaviors, particularly the reasons behind their behaviors, and see them as potential problems requiring discipline. The sensitizer may be in the form of a workbook or computer program.

Other techniques, such as early mentoring of younger African-American recruits by older African-American NCOs, and special training for African-Americans in terms of career enhancing behaviors have been suggested (Knouse, 1993; Landis & Tallarigo, 1996).

Summary

An overwhelming percentage of African-Americans serve with distinction in the military. Differential rates of discipline, however, are well-documented and thus a cause for concern. A number of DEOMI studies have examined possible sociological, interpersonal, service experience, and UCMJ process factors that may contribute to this disparity. The results, unfortunately, are complex and unclear and leave as many questions as they provide answers. Further research is definitely needed.

Recommendations for Future Research and Practice

This final section highlights a number of future directions that are either delineated or implied in the research summarized above.

EO Climate

1.   Expand EO climate research into broader areas.

The MEOCS has been adapted to the civilian sector and EEO. Data should be accumulated on civilian respondents in the military and on other nonmilitary governmental organizations. In addition, the MEOCS has been adapted for university and foreign use (Landis, Dansby, & Tallarigo, 1996). There appears, therefore, to be almost unlimited opportunity for expansion of MEOCS variations into new areas.

2.   Relate MEOCS data to expanded measures of organizational and group performance.

To date, most research with the MEOCS has correlated EO scales with self-report measures from the same respondents on organizational effectiveness, such as satisfaction, trust, commitment, and total quality. Emphasis should be placed on collecting independent, objective measures of organizational performance, such as military readiness inspection results and efficiency measures (e.g., cost effectiveness). In addition, quality measures, such as number of EO complaints and complaint resolution time, should be collected. Moreover, following the total quality management (TQM) concept of defining quality in terms of customer satisfaction (Deming, 1986), measures of local commander satisfaction with EO climate processes, such as complaint resolution, local training, and interpersonal interactions, should be pursued.

An increasing amount of work in the military is being performed in groups: combat teams, support groups, quality improvement teams, staff groups. Therefore, measures of group performance should also be collected in EO climate research, such as satisfaction of group members with their groups, efficiency (e.g., time required to accomplish tasks), quality of processes (e.g., number of complaints, requests for transfer in or out of the group), and group performance (e.g., quality of group decisions, number of ideas implemented)(Knouse & Chretien, 1996).

3.   Expand diversity measures.

Military measures of diversity have paralleled the traditional civilian EEO emphasis on minority and gender as the basic indicators of diversity. Current thought on diversity, however, has greatly expanded this base to include age (both younger and older individuals), disability, employment status (full versus part-time), experience and ability levels, and sexual preference (Cox, 1993; Stone & Colella, 1996). Whereas the last is a highly controversial category, particularly for the military (Kauth & Landis, 1996), other indicators should be considered, especially when the MEOCS is being expanded into civilian audiences.

In line with point number 2, group level diversity measures should be explored. The unit Representation Index appears to be a fruitful start. In addition, other measures might include percentages of various diversity categories at the work group level, as well as combinations of diversity categories within individuals (e.g., an African-American who is also a woman).

4.   · Project EO climate considerations into the 21st century.

With the prospect of continued downsizing and rightsizing of the military, there will be definite implications for EO climate. Most likely, the military of the future will require enhanced technical skills of its members, which may have a potential impact on certain racial, ethnic, and age groups that may have fewer technological skills to offer to the military (Knouse, 1991a). At the same time, as more minorities and women are receiving more technical and higher education, members of these groups may find better opportunities in the civilian job market, resulting in shortages among certain diversity categories within certain job groups in the military in the future.

One relevant area to examine is the military personnel pipeline (Grosch, 1994b). Trying to project EO climate implications into the future depends in part on what is happening today. For example, trying to project how diversity will impact on promotions (e.g., numbers of minority and female generals and admirals) depends in part on how many highly qualified "stars" among diversity groups are entering and being groomed by the military today. An implication is that perhaps data bases should be put together currently on "stars" among minority and gender groups for the purpose of tracking their progress (and their needs) in order be able to project more closely diversity numbers among the higher ranks five, ten, and twenty years into the future.

An interesting twist may be that entry into the military in the future may not be the linear trend we currently see (i.e., new enlisted and officer recruits progressing through a continuous 20 or 30 year career). Rather, if certain technical needs suddenly arise and then disappear in the future, the active duty military may be forced to bring in technical experts at higher ranks from the reserves or even direct entry at higher ranks from civilians with the appropriate skill mixes. Military career progression may be more lateral, crossfunctional, and even cross sector (among the military, private, and public sectors) in the future. This could have varied and unanticipated consequences on such organizational factors as EO climate.

5.   Develop new technologies for measuring EO climate.

The MEOCS surveying approach has proven fruitful and efficient; one or two technicians can manage a program of administering surveys for about 1,000 units annually. New issues and technologies, however, may require different approaches to surveying EO and means of data analysis. Currently, the DEOMI Directorate of Research is exploring various possibilities through its "MEOCS 2000" project. For example, it is looking at alternative types of survey items to the MEOCS critical incident method, which some respondents have criticized as too restrictive for their situation (Grosch, 1994a). In addition, the Directorate is investigating new means for data gathering which will allow faster survey administration and feedback, such as personal computers with CD-ROM capability and automated on-site systems.

Intercultural Training

The dichotomous local effects-global effects model followed by DEOMI for evaluating training offers a number of possible directions for further investigation. For example, the model indicates various types of training effectiveness variables. Local effects can be additionally divided according to internal effects (skills acquisition) and external effects (career success). In addition, Johnson (1995) suggests more extensive use of pretesting trainees to evaluate prior knowledge and experience and systematic follow-up studies of DEOMI graduates at regular intervals.

Global effects can be measured through longitudinal analyses of EO climate, such as time series analysis (Johnson, 1995). Of course, longitudinal study creates its own set of problems, such as significant external events (e.g., the Navy Tailhook incident) occurring independently of the impact of EO training that may affect measures of EO effectiveness (the concept of "history" of external events adversely affecting the validity of a research study; Campbell & Stanley, 1967). For example, negative incidents, such as Tailhook, will cause perceptions of EO climate to decline, regardless of the quality of training occurring at the time.

The TQM perspective mentioned above can indicate quality measures of training effectiveness: number of EO complaints filed, time to process complaints, and satisfaction of external customers with the process (e.g., local commanders). Once again, however, organizational variables (in TQM terms, system factors; Deming, 1986) may independently affect these training measures and thus must be taken into account. For example, a larger number of EO complaints may reflect a more open organizational environment which is more conducive to reporting problems, while a small number of complaints may represent a more aversive environment where individuals are reticent to report incidents. Ideally, a focused study of one military organization could monitor over time the influence of factors (such as organizational trust, the operation of the complaint system, and commander influence) that may impact EO climate. In this type of controlled study, the global effects of EO training effectiveness could be more accurately evaluated.

Military Discipline

There are myriad variables that can be examined and directions that may be pursued. A few are suggested here:

1.   Examine new comparisons.

Many of the studies both within and outside of DEOMI have examined comparisons of African-American and White suspects, offenders, and prison inmates. It could be argued that this is like comparing apples and oranges because African-Americans and Whites bring differing backgrounds to the situation, have different perspectives on the situation, tend to engage in different types of offense, and encounter aspects of the justice process differently. It may be more fruitful then to compare more similar groups, for example comparing African-Americans in the military who are successful versus those from similar backgrounds who become discipline

problems. A provocative study in the civilian area found that African-Americans from a high risk background who did not commit crimes had less childhood problematic behavior, more involvement with Black churches, a stronger family value system, and less involvement with troubled peers than those who committed crimes (Parson & Mikawa, 1988). In essence, instead of focusing solely on interracial differences, research should also look at differences within racial groups, particularly background and life experiences that may be significant.

2.   Examine discretion in the military justice process.

The various models of the military justice system indicate a number of points where the opportunity for discretionary behavior may introduce bias into the system: initial NCO or military police investigation of the incident; local commanders' prerogatives in dispensing with the incident; plea bargaining in the military courts; and the military judges' prerogatives in dealing with evidence, sentencing, and appeals. There is also evidence that Whites may generally understand the military justice system better than African-Americans and can thus use it at various points in the process more to their advantage. Future research should examine these points in the process for possible discretionary decision making. Research might include interviewing military police, unit NCOs, local commanders, military lawyers, and military judges, and examining local NJP data and military court data.

3.   Examine role expectations for African-Americans.

The military enlisted and officer roles have narrower sets of acceptable behaviors than roles in most civilian arenas. Hence the potential for disciplinary action may be larger in the military. Moreover, it has been suggested that African-Americans may be held to an even higher standard of conduct within this narrow range of acceptability than are Whites. Further research should examine the role-sending and role-taking process (Katz and Kahn, 1982)--initial role expectations, changes in expectations over time, and role senders (peers, NCOs, officers).

4.   Evaluate possible solutions - the socialization inoculator, intercultural sensitizer, and mentoring.

Researchers have suggested training solutions to military discipline disparities, such as the socialization inoculator and the intercultural sensitizer. To date, these devices are in the prototype stages. Further development and testing of these and other training solutions are warranted.

Same-race mentoring would also appear to be a feasible solution. African-American NCOs might better understand the background and perspectives of young African-Americans coming into the service and could thus provide these new recruits with credible advice and direction about how to deal with the military environment. Of course, if African-American NCOs are held to a higher standard than Whites as some data suggest, this can be a potentially risky proposition for Black NCOs to go "out on a limb" to help potentially troubled young enlisteds.

Mentoring research shows that mentoring cannot be formally imposed by the organization, rather a "chemistry" must develop between the mentor and protégé (Kram, 1988). What the military can do is provide opportunities both within the job and outside the job for older and younger African-Americans (or members of other groups) to come into contact and allow relationships to develop. Mentoring thus has potential but may be narrowly defined and fairly short lived in the military (individuals are transferred frequently). And given the potential constraints on African-American NCOs, there may not be enough mentors to go around. A suggestion in the mentoring literature is to use peers as substitute mentors (Kram, 1988). Peers in the military, however, may not have the expertise or authority to help their troubled colleagues.

Conclusion

This article has presented three substantial streams of DEOMI research into EO climate, intercultural training, and military discipline. DEOMI as a Department of Defense organization is in a unique position to be able to investigate trends across Services unclouded by Service-specific perspectives. Rather, DEOMI can examine the "big picture" of the military overall. As the American military moves into the 21st century, there will likely be more unified combat roles among the Services and greater emphasis on overall defense issues, rather than specific Army, Navy, Marine, or Air Force approaches. DEOMI thus has the opportunity to be in the forefront on future research and policy advice for diversity management (and in the larger sense human resources management) considerations in the American military.

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